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NORTH-SEMITIC EPIGRAPHY¹.

THE study of North-Semitic epigraphy, especially in this country, has sorely stood in need of the stimulus which Mr. G. A. Cooke's excellent handbook is calculated to afford. The great Paris *Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum* is costly, and the rate of publication is naturally slow; the Palmyrene inscriptions have not yet appeared, and although the other Aramaic and the Phoenician divisions are nearly completed, fresh inscriptions have been discovered which in not a few cases affect those which have already been edited, sometimes in the matter of interpretation, sometimes even as regards the readings. Professor Driver's notes in the Introduction to his *Hebrew Text of Samuel* were an admirable specimen of what was needed for younger students, but obviously they could not carry the beginner far. The present writer's *Glossary of the Aramaic Inscriptions*, as the title implies, was limited in its scope and barely covered one portion of the field, and it was left for Lidzbarski's fine *Handbuch der Nordsemitischen Epigraphik* to furnish the first general introduction to the inscriptions. The arrangement of the material, the complete bibliography, the comparative glossary of the Canaanite and Aramaic inscriptions, and the useful selection of texts render his work indispensable for advanced study², but, like the *Corpus*, it is scarcely the book to put

¹ *A Text-book of North-Semitic Inscriptions.* By the Rev. G. A. Cooke, M.A. (Clarendon Press).

² Needless to say, the *Handbuch* has been of the greatest assistance in these pages, particularly in the compilation of the material, pp. 272-7 below.

into the hands of the beginner. A preliminary text-book was wanted, and Mr. Cooke, who originally intended to provide a manual for students who offer the subject of Semitic Epigraphy in the Honour School of Oriental Studies at Oxford, wisely decided to appeal to a larger field. Here we have about 150 inscriptions, transliterated into Hebrew, translated, and admirably annotated ; care has been taken to incorporate the most recent researches, and the discrimination which the author has shown in dealing with the copious material scattered throughout the various learned journals gives his work a lasting value. Primarily intended though it is for younger students, we have no doubt that Mr. Cooke's publication will, through the richness of its notes, be gladly welcomed by all Semitic scholars.

The inscriptions under consideration belong to the "North-Semitic" division. The term is a convenient one, but is not to be understood in a geographical sense alone, since "North-Semitic" inscriptions are found in Arabia and Egypt, and "South-Semitic" have been discovered south of Damascus and in the region east of Jordan. The term is used partly in a palaeographic and partly in a linguistic sense. The "South-Semitic" scripts, in which are written the inscriptions of the Minaeans and the Sabaeans, of Lihyan, Thamud and Safa, separated at an early, though unknown, date from that ancestral alphabet, the parent of the North-Semitic and European forms, and are characterized by distinctive forms and by greater precision in the reproduction of the finer shades of utterance. As a linguistic term, "South-Semitic" includes Arabic and Ethiopic, and stands opposed to the "North-Semitic" which, with Wright, may be divided into three groups : Eastern (Assyrian and Babylonian), Central (Aramaean), and Western (Canaanite)¹. Since Assyrian and Baby-

¹ Other groups have been suggested, but Wright's has distinct advantages and is eminently preferable to that which Mr. Cooke himself adopts (p. xvii and n. 1), apparently through a misunderstanding of Wright's words (*Comp. Gr.*, p. 12).

lonian stand apart, it is the Canaanite and Aramaean inscriptions which come under consideration, and a brief survey of the material and characteristics of these two branches will afford some idea of what is meant by these rather conventional designations¹.

Of the Canaanite inscriptions by far the most important is the Moabite stone dating from the middle of the ninth century B.C. (No. 1)². Entering, as it does, into Hebrew history it is the most interesting record yet discovered, and the literary ability with which it is marked is evident proof that the Moabites were well acquainted with the art of writing³. With the exception of a couple of seals, which bear names compounded with the god Chemosh, no other Moabite remains have as yet come to light. As regards Hebrew inscriptions, too, the material at present is lamentably scanty. The only one of any length is a six-lined text from the tunnel connecting the Pool of Siloam and the Virgin's Spring in Jerusalem (No. 2). A number of small specimens of Hebrew writing have been found in the shape of seals and pottery-marks, jar-stamps, &c., and are chiefly of value for Hebrew onomatology and palaeography⁴.

¹ It will be recalled that the Hebrew square character has developed out of the Aramaic, from which source, also, are derived the Arabic forms. It is singular to find during the early centuries of the Christian era some Arabian tribes using an Aramaic script, others a South-Semitic, a descendant of the older Minaean and Sabaean; in the former the definite article in compound proper names is **ה** as in Arabic, in the latter **ו**! See below, p. 271.

² The figures in heavy type refer to their position in Cooke's *Text-book*.

³ It is a little astonishing that the belief has not yet died out that the stone after all may be a forgery. If this were so, it would be remarkable that **רְמוּס** (?**רְמָס**, **רְמָס**, ll. 9, 23), evidently a pit or reservoir, has only recently been recovered (Eccl. l. 3, see Cooke, p. 9).

⁴ On p. xx. n. 2, **רְמָס**[? **רְמָס**] should be read **רְמָס**. It is possibly the *Mampsio* (*Mayus*) of the *Onomastica* (Lagarde, 85, 3; 210, 86), on the road from Elath to Hebron, one day's journey from *Thamara* (Hommel, *Expository Times*, xii. p. 288 [1901]). In the same note too, for **וְנִנְסָס** read **וְנִנְסָס**, the dot or rather stroke (so in the original) appears to be a word-divider.

The vast majority of the Canaanite inscriptions are Phoenician, and with few exceptions have been found outside the mother country. They proceed from a definite and distinct branch of the Semites which, ever restless and energetic, pushed its colonies along the coasts of the Mediterranean, possibly as far as Spain itself. The oldest inscription of any length from Phoenicia proper is that of Yehaw-melek, king of Gebal (Byblus), of the fifth or fourth century B.C. (No. 3). Somewhat later are the Sidonian inscriptions of the dynasty of Eshmunazar (Nos. 4 sq., Appendix, pp. 401-3), whilst a few from Tyre, Umm el-'Awâmid and Ma'sûb extend to the third and second (Nos. 8-10). Of greater antiquity, however, are the Baal-Lebanon, and the Hassan-bey-li¹ inscriptions, the former found at Cyprus, belonging to the time of Hiram (II)², the latter from N. Syria, west of Zenjirli, seems to be of about the same period. Cyprus has furnished a number of other interesting inscriptions (cp. Nos. 12-30) from the fourth century downwards, and some of these, written in Phoenician and Cypriote, were of great assistance in the decipherment of the latter character. The Phoenician inscriptions from Egypt (No. 31) have not been so numerous or important as the Aramaic.

Phoenician colonies in Greece (Athens, Piraeus, Nos. 32 sq.) have provided richer material, ranging from the fourth or third century to the first (96 B.C.). Malta and Sardinia have furnished a few distinctive finds chiefly of the second century, although two remarkable examples (Nos. 37, 41) on palaeographic grounds may even be four centuries older. From France come two tablets, probably of the fourth century B.C., one found at Avignon, the other, an extremely

¹ Edited by Winckler, *Altorientalische Forschungen*, I, pp. 305-9.

² No. 11; Mr. Cooke agrees with von Landau that Hiram II, mentioned by Tiglath-Pileser III (738 B.C.), and not the contemporary of David and Solomon, is meant. This is also the view of Ed. Meyer (*Encyc. Bib.*, col. 3753, n. 2), and is probably correct. Hence the famous bowl can no longer be cited as a specimen of the Phoenician character of the eleventh or tenth century.

important sacrificial tablet, at Marseilles (No. 42). That these were actually inscribed in France by Phoenician merchants or colonists is far from certain. Carthage, and the northern coast of Africa (Tunis, Tripoli, Algeria) have furnished hundreds of remains, none, however, older than the fourth or third century, whilst the latest (the Neo-Punic) belong to the earliest Christian times.

Extending as they do over so many centuries, these inscriptions display numerous examples of modification. Not only does the script undergo remarkable change, but the orthography and the language does not remain fixed. Traces of separate dialects are found in the Byblus inscription, and in those from Hassan-bey-li, Larnax Lapethos, and Sardinia¹. Foreign influence shows itself partly in the bilinguals, in the use of Greek, Cypriote, Latin, and Berber, and now and again in the general style of the inscription. A notable example of the latter feature appears in No. 33, from Piraeus. As is frequently the case in the Aramaic inscriptions, the evidence of the proper names often suggests that the writers were foreigners, cp. Cleon (No. 40), and see e.g. No. 52, where the names appear to be Numidian.

As regards the general characteristics of the Canaanite inscriptions reference may be made to Mr. Cooke's remarks, pp. xix, 23 and *passim*. For the Hebrew student their grammatical and orthographical features are of the greatest interest, and on the assumption that no one knows anything of Hebrew who only Hebrew knows, the bearing of the inscriptions upon the study of Old Testament language and writing can scarcely be overestimated. Among the peculiarities of Phoenician may be noticed the use of בְּ "to be," never היה, and the construction בְּנָה ; both the verb and the construction are reminiscent of Arabic, but naturally are not to be taken as evidence that Phoenician and Arabic were more closely related than Hebrew and

¹ See Cooke, p. 25 and note in No. 29 בְּנָה for בְּ, and in Nos. 39-41 the comparative frequency with which וְ is used.

Arabic. Similarly, the Phoenician עַרְפָּת “portico” and תְּנוּצָה a kind of sacrifice, admit of an explanation from Arabic and Ethiopic respectively, and find their chief value in the circumstance that they serve to indicate that the common Canaanite language must have been considerably more extensive than the vocabulary of the Old Testament by itself would suggest. Phoenician, it may be mentioned, carefully distinguishes between יְרֵחָ “month” and חֶדֶשׁ “moon”; in Hebrew, on the other hand, they are confused. It is rather singular, also, that the Hebrew prepositions בְּ and בִּ have not as yet been found in Phoenician¹. The construction הַבְּמִתְּ הַזֹּאת (never הַבְּמִתְּ הַזָּהָר) is characteristic of Phoenician and Moabite as distinguished from Hebrew, where, however, it is not quite unknown². The spelling זָאת in the Moabite stone (l. 3) agrees with the Hebrew, but in Phoenician the corresponding form זָה does not appear until the period of the latest (the Neo-Punic) inscriptions. On the other hand, it regularly employs זָה for both genders³, although no doubt they were distinguished in pronunciation⁴.

¹ The Phoen. לְ may correspond to the former (see p. 283, n. 3 below), but whether גְּ answers to בְּ is not certain (Cooke, pp. 33, 35). As regards the latter, at all events in אֲגָרְתָּה (אֲגָרְתָּה) the use of גְּ may find a parallel in the *Poenulus* of Plautus; *anno byn mythymballe bechaedre anec* (Hannonen esse ait Carthagine, Carthaginensis Muthumballis filium) appears to represent: קָרְבָּה [תְּנוּצָה] בְּקָרְבָּה.

² See the passages cited by Driver on 1 Sam. xix. 10.

³ Only in the Byblus inscription does the fem. זָה occur, and it might be suggested that זָה is a double feminine, and that זָה and זָה are earlier forms. זָה, however, is not confined to the feminine (p. 26), but as CIS i. 149, l. 3 sq. and other passages show, could be used for the masculine (cp. Lidzbarski, *Ephemeris*, I, p. 44). The addition of ה finds parallels in the Phoen. תְּנוּצָה, the Sabaeon תְּנוּתָה, fem. תְּנוּתָה, and in Ethiopic (Wright, p. 105). It is therefore possible that the ה of the Hebrew זָה has a similar origin, and has nothing to do with the feminine termination. The form in the *Poenulus* of Plautus (*syth*) points to an older זָה, analogous to *chyl* = נָה. The evidence of Plautus is naturally to be used with caution, but these interesting old fragments are important enough to have deserved some notice in Mr. Cooke's *Introduction*.

⁴ Wright (p. 108) conjectures זָה and זָה. The Hebrew זָה, it should be mentioned, has passed over into עָה in such spellings as the Punic *salus* (three), *rufe*

Moabite is characterized by the occurrence of a conjugation which is elsewhere found only in Assyrian and Arabic (מַתָּהַל “to wage war”), the plural and dual ends in *־* as occasionally in Hebrew¹, whilst the Phoenician regularly has *וּ*. The language on the whole differs only dialectically from Hebrew, and although a few features associate it with Phoenician, these are outweighed by such usages as the Hiphil as opposed to the Iphil (see below) and by characteristic idioms and terms (see Cooke, p. 5).

As regards the orthography, too, Moabite is more closely related to Hebrew than to Phoenician, and in view of the question of the orthography of the earliest MSS. of the Old Testament, the subject is one of some interest. In the first place let us observe that both the Moabite stone and the only Hebrew inscription of length separate the words by means of a point². In Phoenician, however, the inscriptions so marked are not the oldest, nor are they found in Phoenicia itself, but in Greece, Cyprus, and the west³. The Massoretic text contains indubitable instances of the incorrect division of words⁴, but these may be due to the fact that the earliest MSS. were written in a script where these convenient guides were not in use. It is to be noticed that neither points nor any similar contrivances are used in Egyptian Aramaic (the words, however, are sometimes separated by spaces), nor do we meet with final letters before the period of the Nabataean inscriptions (middle of the first cent. B.C. and onwards).

In the next place, as regards the use of *וּ*, *וְ*, *וָ* and *וַ*, it is important to notice the leading features of the inscriptions. In the Siloam inscription, it is true, final *וַ* is

(physician), *alonuth* (goddesses), *rus* (head), and notably *suffet* (שְׁפֵת). Note, on the other hand, *אֶפְרַאֵלָו* = אֶפְרַאֵל.

¹ Hence, the Old Testament examples are not necessarily Aramaisms.

² Similarly the Aramaic inscriptions of Zenjirli, but not the contiguous Phoenician inscriptions from Hassan-bey-li, or the Baal-Lebanon bowl. In the oldest Arabian inscriptions the words are divided by a line.

³ Lidzbarski, *Handbuch*, p. 202.

⁴ For examples, cp. Driver, *Samuel*, pp. xxx sqq.

represented in נִקְבָּה (boring), הִיא (to be), זֹה (this), &c., but against this we have הִיאַת, which is presumably rather than הִיאַת (p. 16 sq.). Final וּ and וְ appear in כְּ and וְילְטָו in conformity with Moabite as opposed to Phoenician. Ordinary long ī and ō are not represented (e.g. הָצְבָּם, תָּאַפְתָּה &c.), and the spellings שָׁוֹר and מָצָא suggest that these retained the older pronunciation שָׁוֹר and מָצָא. On the other hand, in the two exceptions קָלְלָם and יִם, the vowel, whatever its origin (יִם, קָלְלָם (?)), was probably heard as ō. The question, however, remains uncertain. Noteworthy also are the spellings רָאֵשׁ in the Siloam inscription, compared with the Moabite צָאֵן and צָאֵן on the one hand, and רָשׁ (head), and רִית (?) gazing-stock ✓ on the other. Obviously נָ, at least, was never written unless it retained some consonantal force.

There are certain spellings in the Moabite stone which deserve consideration. The ordinary long ō and ī are not marked (דִּיבָּן, שְׁלָלָם), hence is probably rather than דִּיבָּן, and in the names דָוָה, חָרָן, וְ is probably diphthongal. Comparing יִמְהָה (l. 22) with בְּתָה (l. 7), בְּתָה (l. 25) with שְׁעִירָה (l. 8), it is open to suppose that the vowel is ē, and, if this be so, we must pronounce the Phoenician duals שְׁנָם, מְאַתָּם, with ēm (cp. Heb. שְׁנִים) and treat the Moabite מְאַתִּים as a *plene* spelling. If, however, we may conjecture that even a diphthong could be omitted, we may point to the North-Arabian inscriptions from Ṣafa, where such spellings as אָם (aus, also אָם), אָנָף (unaif) and שְׁעָהָקָם (Nabataean שְׁעָאַלְקָם) recur¹. Another difficult letter in the Moabite stone is the final חָ (קְרָחָה, l. 3; דָוָה, l. 12; לִילָה, l. 15). It is not the feminine, since this is regularly תָּ. Wright (p. 139) sug-

¹ It may be added that in וְרָא בְּקָרְבָּן (l. 24), Mr. Cooke understands אָנָן (Gen. xlvi. 13), but אָנָן (אָנָן) is possible on the analogy of 2 Kings xix. 3. The verbal form הָצְעָנִי (l. 4) is curious enough to have deserved remark. Was it pronounced הָצְעָנִי or הָצְעָנִי? The name Hoshea is always written הֹשֵׁעַ on Hebrew seals, but whereas the king is called *a-u-si'* in an inscription of Tiglath-Pileser III, in a bilingual Aramaic docket (c. 680 B.C.), הֹשֵׁעַ is represented by *u-si'*.

gests, in the case of קְרַחַת, that it represents an ending *ā'u*; this, perhaps, does not suit לִילָה, perhaps originally לִילִי (cp. Syr. لَلَّسَن), but that *h* has some consonantal force, at all events, appears tolerably certain.

The Moabite use of the final *ו* and *ו* as a vowel letter (cp. Siloam, בַּיִלְכֹו, is contrary to Phoenician. “for” is regularly בַּי, and it is not until the period of the Neo-Punic inscriptions that the vowel is indicated¹. The plural construct in *ו* (1. 13, 23) is not marked in old Phoenician, only Punic and Neo-Punic use *ו-* or *ו-*². The plural *וַיִם*, too, is only found in Neo-Punic. With the Moabite (1. 4 “he saved me”) contrast the Phoenician *וַיַּעֲשֵׂנִי* (“she made me”), with בְּנָתִי, בְּנָה (ll. 18, 21, “he, I built”) contrast בְּנָת, בְּנָה³. The 1st sing. suffix of the noun, however, is regularly represented in both.

As regards the evidence of Hebrew seals, pottery stamps, &c., the following details may be noticed: אֶבְנֵי (Massoretic Text אֶבְנֵי) (never אֶדְנֵשׁ, אֶבְנֵי, אֶבְנֵי), otherwise always אֶלְעָם, אֶלְמָיָם, אֶלְשָׁע, אֶלְמַיָּם, &c.); וְמַרְיָה &c. (only once יְהִי [?], Levy 3 = Vogüé 36); the *plene* חֹרֵץ seems to be exceptional. חַבְרָן is written defectively on the pottery stamps from the Shéphélah; on the other hand cp. זִיפָה and שָׁוְבָה, where, however, the LXX ζειφ (but also ζεφ) and the modern name *esh-Shuweikeh* may suggest that the spellings Ziph and Sōcōh are not original⁴. It is perhaps sufficient to have recorded some of the more important orthographical peculiarities of the Canaanite

¹ Viz. נָא, נָה, נָכָה. On the use of the gutturals, see Cooke, p. 140. Note in Phoen. בְּנָה “they built,” בְּנָה “they sacrifice,” פְּרָח “fruit,” לְפָעָל “above,” שְׁבָעָה “eight,” שְׁבָעָה “field.”

² The only exceptions in Aramaic are old: אֶלְהָה (62 2, but אֶלְהָה, 1. 22), מְאָה (65 6).

³ Hence the Moabite אֶנְקָה does not stand for (in Phoenician, only in graffiti from Egypt).

⁴ Plene spellings in old Aramaic inscriptions are found certainly in קְרַחַת, חַגְלָאֵלִיסָר (ibid., 1. 3), whether in בְּנָה, הַטְבָנָה, יְהָמָה, יְהָמָה, בְּנָתִי, בְּנָתִי (Lidz., *Ephem.*, I, 82) is doubtful. For the evidence from the later Nabataean and Palmyrene inscriptions (e. g. אֶנוֹשׁ, חָמָר, &c.), see below, 276, n. 1.

inscriptions, obviously a complete discussion of them in connexion with the Massoretic Text would be out of place¹.

It has already been observed that Moabite agrees with Hebrew in the use of the Hiphil (השענִי &c.). In Phoenician the *h* is replaced by ' (יקרֵשׁ, מְנָא, &c.), and it is only in Neo-Punic that we find the form *העלא*². The view that ' is a *spiritus lenis*, a weakening of the older *h* (p. 58), is difficult on account of the later Neo-Punic form just cited, and it would seem preferable to allow the ' to retain its consonantal force, and to pronounce *yikdīš* (or *yakdīš*), rather than *ikdīš*. One other point which calls for notice is the form of the suffix of the third sing. masc.: Moabite *h*, Phoen. '—, later *h*—, and Neo-Punic *h*—. *h*— seems to appear also in the Hassan-bey-li inscription, but only in that of Yehaw-melek of Byblus do we meet with '— (also verbal, *תְּחִוָּה* 1. 9), fem. *h*— (p. 25). Mr. Cooke has strong support when he explains '— as a contraction of an original *-ahi* (p. 42), the Moabite *h*— from *-ahu* = *-au* = *-ō* (p. 8), and the plural suffix in "his words," from [דְּבָרֵי] (p. 104, ep. *תְּמִימְוִילְהִי*, Ps. cxvi. 12). It seems better to derive all three from *-ihu* (*-ihi*³), comparing the Hebrew *אָזְרָה*, *עִינָה*, *לְמִינָה*. (dual or plur. *אָזְרִיָּה*, *עִינִיָּה*, *לְמִינִיָּה*). If so, the Moabite and Phoenician forms should be pronounced *אָרְצָה*, *קָלָי*, and *דְּבָרִי*. The not unfrequent examples of the masc. *h*— in the Old Testament may also be similarly viewed: *עִילָה* and *סֹוֶה* (Gen. xlix. 11) should be *עִילָה* and *סֹוֶה*, and the Massoretic punctuation, under these circumstances, must date from a time when the older use had been forgotten. It is important to notice that *פִּילְגְּשָׁהוּ* (Judg. xix. 24) contrasted with *פִּילְגְּשָׁוּ* (ver. 25) shows that both forms could be used side by side⁴.

¹ We may, however, note the confusion of נ and כ in Judg. xvi. 25; Ezek. vii. 9 (כְּרָנִים), see verse 4; Ps. lxix. 17, cix. 21 (כִּי תַּוְגַּ). ² The late proper names מִילָּם, מִיקָּם, may be Iphil participles (Lidzb.).

³ This, the genitive form, appears to underlie the Aramaic *-eh* (Wright, p. 155), which is quoted by Cooke on p. 42 in support of the original form *-ahi*.

⁴ Cp. *לְבָשָׁוּ*, *אָהָנוּ*, Gen., 1.c. See, further, *Proceedings of Soc. of Bibl.*

Turning next to the Aramaic inscriptions we may observe that they are not, like the Phoenician, the work of a distinct branch of the Semites, nor do they admit of being classified with such precision as was the case with the Canaanite. Apart from Syriac proper, the language spoken around Edessa, a literary language, the Aramaic dialects fall into a number of divisions whose earlier history is clouded in obscurity. It is sufficient here to mention Jewish Aramaic, the dialect of the Targums, the later Christian-Palestinian (or Palestinian-Syriac)¹, the Aramaic of the Babylonian Talmud, the Mandaean, and to these we must add the dialects of the Aramaic portions of Ezra and Daniel, and of the inscriptions.

It is known from Isa. xxxvi. 11, 2 Kings xviii. 26, that Aramaic was used in diplomatic intercourse between Assyrians and Israelites in the time of Hezekiah; the inscriptions will show us that these were by no means the only people who found the language more serviceable than their own. The oldest remains are those from Zenjirli in North Syria (Nos. 61-63), and date from the eighth century. Although written in a script, closely resembling that of the Moabite stone, it is important to observe that a very gradual modification can be observed in the shapes of certain letters (א, ב, בְּ, בָּ, בָּ, בָּ, see Plate XIII), a clear indication of the early development of the Aramaic alphabet².

Archaeology, 1903, p. 39 sq., on the forms בָּה, בָּמָה in the Nash papyrus (cp. *J. Q. R.*, 1902, p. 395, ll. 9, 11). The curious יְבָרְכֵי (ibid., l. 16), it may be added, seems to find support in the Phoen. יְבָרְכֵי (יְבָרְכָא) "may he (they) bless him." If so, we must pronounce יְבָרְכֵי, the בְּ is a consonant, and not a *plene* spelling as in יְבָרְכָא (Job xxi. 23). That the בְּ in the Phoen. יְבָרְכָא retained some guttural force seems to follow from its being used with the imperf. plu. (above).

¹ On its geographical distribution ('Abûd, between Judaea and Samaria in the seventh, and Antioch in the eleventh century), see Burkitt, *Journ. Theol. Stud.*, II (1901), p. 181.

² To these inscriptions we must now add that of Kalammu son of Hayan (Šanda, "Die Aramäer," *Der alte Orient*, IV, Heft 3, pp. 12, 26), which is said to belong to the time of Shalmaneser II (859-825 B.C.). This inscription, which appears to explain an obscure phrase in No. 63 17, has not yet been edited.

From Nerab, in the neighbourhood of Aleppo, come two small but extremely interesting inscriptions, probably of the seventh or sixth century (Nos. 64, 65).

The finds from Assyria and Babylonia are numerous. A few bronze lion-weights (No. 66) have Assyrian inscriptions, and since they bear the names of the kings Shalmaneser, Sargon or Sennacherib, admit of being dated with tolerable certainty. Somewhat later are a number of contract-tablets, most of which are Assyrian with Aramaic legends; those from Assyria belong chiefly to the seventh century, the Babylonian to the sixth and fifth. Passing over seals, bowls, &c., we need only mention a bilingual from Telloh of the third or second century in Aramaic and Greek (הַדְּרָנִים אֲדָמִים αχῆς) ¹.

From Limyra comes another bilingual in Greek and Aramaic of the fifth or fourth century, and elsewhere in Asia Minor a few scattered inscriptions have been found, one of the most interesting being from Saraïdin in Cilicia (No. 68), where a young huntsman places on record the fact that he was making a meal there. The recently published inscriptions from Cappadocia should also be mentioned ², if only in the hope that scholars acquainted with Persian may turn their attention to them.

Aramaic would appear to have been frequently used in Egypt during the Persian period. A stone inscription, dated in the fourth year of Xerxes (482 B.C., No. 71), is of particular importance on this account for the history of Aramaic palaeography, and to this we may now add a papyrus, recently edited by Euting, of the fourteenth year of Darius (II. Nothus, i. e. 411-410 B.C.). Among the other finds of Egyptian origin are to be mentioned the ostraka from Elephantine, and the Oxford papyrus which Mr. Cooke was able to insert in his Appendix (pp. 404-6)—an interesting illustration of the progress of Semitic epigraphy.

¹ One recalls the Greek-Babylonian fragments edited by Pinches, in the *PSBA*, 1902, pp. 108-19, perhaps of the second century.

² Lidzbarski, *Ephemeris für semitische Epigraphik*, I, pp. 59-74, 319-26.

Têma, in Egypt, furnishes one old Aramaic inscription of the sixth or fifth century (No. 69), and a few others of descending date, among them one of particular interest for its close palaeographic resemblance to the bilingual from Telloh (No. 70). From Hejra come a number of small legends extending down to the second century B. C., chiefly noteworthy for the steady modification of the script to the form assumed upon the Nabataean inscriptions. The last-mentioned constitute a distinct palaeographic class, and to judge from the proper names were largely due to Arab-speaking tribes. A few have even been found in Italy (Puteoli, Rome)¹—the work of travelling merchants—one at Sidon, and one as far north as Domêr (No. 97), but by far the greater number were found in the Haurân, and in the district of Hejra. Those from Hejra are grave-inscriptions, and form one of the most important contributions to our knowledge of Aramaic. In addition to this, they are tolerably connected pieces of writing, and those who desire to obtain a grounding in Aramaic epigraphy will find these inscriptions the simplest to commence with. A small group of inscriptions have been found also at Petra, two of which are of considerable importance (Nos. 95 sq.).

Palmyra, the ancient Tadmor, has provided a great number of inscriptions, quite distinct from the Nabataean, as regards palaeography, the general character of the contents, and, to some extent at least, the language. These, too, are chiefly due to Arabs, although apart from the proper names the Arabisms are not so pronounced as in the Nabataean. Many of these, notably the Tariff of Palmyra (No. 147), are bilingual (Palmyrene and Greek). Finally, as a palaeographic subdivision of the Nabataean, we must include the inscriptions from the Sinaitic Peninsula, consisting of hundreds of rude graffiti scratched upon the rocks by traders. Mr. Cooke's selection (Nos. 103-109) contains

¹ No. 102 and CIS ii. 157. The latter a bilingual in Latin and Nab. was erected by *Abdaretas* (אבדראתא) of Petra.

the more interesting examples, and illustrates the extent to which Aramaic enters into them. With rare exceptions the names are entirely Arabic, but the phrases ("blessed," "hail," "son," &c.) are Aramaic, and one meets with such noteworthy combinations as "Hail (הַלֵּם)! Garm-al-ba'li, son (בֶּן) of Ibn-Alkaini; good luck (בְּטָבָע)¹." The article הַ, as in the names just cited, agrees with the Arabic, whilst it is rather remarkable that in the inscriptions from Ṣafa, written in a North-Arabian script, it is regularly הַ². A few graffiti of the same character as the Sinaitic were recently discovered in Egypt in the Wâdy Gadammeh, NE. of Keneh³.

The extensive use of Aramaic by people other than Aramaeans is reflected in the language of the inscriptions. From the evidence of the proper names alone we are able to recognize the presence of Assyria and Babylonia, Persia, Egypt, Arabia, Greece and Rome. Assyrian influence appears notably in the Zenjirli inscriptions, and in the lion-weights and contracts; it has even been suspected in the old inscription from Têma⁴. Persian seems to appear upon seals in such names as מְתְּרַצֵּחֶר, אֲרַתְּדָת, פְּרַשְׁנָרָת, in such words as סְתִּירָה[א] "sepulchre," in the Palmyrene אֲרָגְבָּתָא, and especially in the Cappadocian inscriptions referred to above. In Egyptian-Aramaic, in addition to Persian, Egyptian words are taken over מְנָחָה, חַסְמָה, תְּחִפָּה("fem. חַמְנָחָה), and to the presence of Jews we probably owe such Hebraisms as אִישׁ "man" and לְקַח "take." Arabisms appear notably in the Nabataean inscriptions, viz. the

¹ CIS ii. 787, cp. No. 104.

² Thus the Nab. סְפִּירָה appears in Ṣafa as סְפִּירָה 140 B. 4; see Lidzbarski, *Ephemeris*, II, p. 36 sq.

³ To be published in an early number of the *Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archaeology*.

⁴ e. g. Tiglath-pileser "lord of the four parts of the earth" (62 14, 63 4); מְלָךְ יְהוָה = *manā ya ḥarri* (66), סְנִיבָע = *sinibu* "half" (CIS ii. No. 7, but פְּרַשְׁתָּה in No. 10); דְּנִינָה = *dannitu* (*ibid.*, 17 sqq.) "document"; see also Cooke on 69, ll. 13 and 18 (where רְבָת, second line, is a misprint).

construction **מִן דִי יְמִן** for **מִן יְמִן**, the precative perfect, the use of **לְשָׁרֶן** “curse,” **שְׁלֵשִׁי**, &c. (see note on No. 80 6), and the conjunction **וְ** (found, however, in the Zenjirli inscriptions). Technical Greek and Latin terms predominate in Palmyrene (p. 264 sq.).

Considering the history of these Aramaic inscriptions it is not surprising that they reveal numerous traces of dialectical variation. Mr. Cooke's helpful notes (especially pp. 184 sq., 264 sq.) will give the reader some idea of their characteristics. The following supplementary remarks may, however, be added. In the oldest series, the Zenjirli inscriptions, it is important to distinguish between the latest, that of Bar-Rekub (No. 63), and the earliest, that of Hadad (No. 61). The former is essentially Aramaic and tolerably straightforward, the latter is most marked by non-Aramaic elements and is extremely obscure: the Panammu stone (No. 62) comes midway as regards intelligibility and philological phenomena. Whether the peculiarities are due to the mixture of dialects or to the gradual introduction and growth of Aramaic may be left an open question, at the least the endeavour must be made to avoid confusing features which are regular in Old Aramaic with those which are confined to one or more of these inscriptions alone. Of the forms and usages characteristic of Aramaic, as cited by Mr. Cooke, **אֲנָה** “I,” **כְּרוּתָא** “throne”¹, **רַבְּרַבָּן** “great” (plur.), and the emphatic form are found *only* in No. 63. The best examples with Canaanite analogies are to be found in No. 61 (**אֲנָל** “I,” **וְ**, **וְיָכְרָה**, **וְחַרְאָה**, and the infinitive without prefixed **וְ**), to a less degree in No. 62 (e.g. **אֲנָכִי** “I”), and scarcely once in No. 63. The Canaanite **וְ** and **לְקָחָה** occur in Nos. 61, 62, the Aramaic **חָדָר** “one” and **בָּנָה** “son” in all three². It is a characteristic feature

¹ Also Phoenician, No. 15 2.

² It may be noticed as an instance of the facility with which foreign words may be adopted that the Aramaic **וְ** is used even in the pre-Mohammedan Arabic inscription found by Dussaud at en-Nemārā (cp. Lidz., *Ephem.*, II, 35).

of No. 61 that the masc. plural ends in $\text{ר}-^1$, and that this is merely a case of apocope of $\text{ר}-$ seems to be rendered doubtful by the fact that the fuller plural is $\text{ר}-$ and never $\text{ר}-^2$. It is equally characteristic that the fem. plur. in $\text{ר}-^3$ appears only in No. 62, and that cohortative ל is prefixed to the imperfect in No. 61. The forms in $\text{ר}-$, which are more frequent in No. 61 than in No. 62, are obscure; they are possibly abstract nouns since the suffix 3rd sing. masc. is regularly $\text{ר}-$ (but note אֶבֶה , אֶבֶה and even אֶבֶה).

The consonantal equations are not entirely peculiar to this group. ר for ו (= Heb. ו) is best known from the form אֶרְקָנָה "earth" (Jer. x. 11) which is found in inscriptions of the sixth century and later⁴; but even in No. 61 30 we find צָר (? i. q. צָר Dan. iv. 16), where this law would have led us to expect רָק . ש for the normal ו appears only in No. 63 19 (כִּיצְנָה) and one of the Nerab inscriptions (No. 64 12). ש for נ soon seems to have died out: in the inscription from Cilicia (fifth or fourth century), in the Têma inscription, and in Egyptian-Aramaic the forms אֶתְרָה "place," "seat," and חָמָה "there," are in agreement with the ordinary Aramaic usage. On the other hand, ר for נ was tenaciously retained (p. 185, note 1) down to the coins of Mazdai (fourth century)⁵ and the Cappadocian inscriptions already referred to.

¹ But the reading רְמָה in No. 62 23, and שְׁבָעָה (constr. state?) *ibid.*, l. 3. The latter finds an analogy in Sabaean usage.

² $\text{ר}-$, however, in lion-weights (מְנִין , also מְנִין), and later in Nab. and Palm. inscriptions.

³ The reading רְמָה in No. 61 10 is not quite certain.

⁴ The occurrence of the form in the Cappadocian inscriptions (Lidzbarski, *Ephemeris*, I, p. 323, l. 3), shows that it was in use two or three (or more) centuries later. That the $\delta\mu\sigma\rho\kappa\alpha$ of Berossos stands for אֶרְקָנָה (Gunkel, Zimmern) is not generally accepted; see King, *Seven Tablets of Creation*, I, p. xlvi note. To illustrate the equation, mention may be made of Halévy's ingenious suggestion that the form of the ר was originally derived from the circle ו by the addition of a stroke, but see Lidzbarski's criticisms, *op. cit.*, p. 264.

⁵ The early exceptions הַשְׁעָר (*CIS* ii. 87), and אֶרְדָּן (*No. 150* 2, 3) are doubtful.

The close relation between the inscriptions and the Aramaic portions of Ezra (fourth century ?) and Daniel (early second) is of considerable importance. Apart from the more frequent use of the construct state, there are several linguistic features of interest which call for remark. The use of **ה** where the later Aramaic uses **א** is noticeable in such words as **אָהָ** "I," **הִנֵּה** "if," and especially in the causative and reflexive conjugations. As regards the causative forms, the older inscriptions (including Eg.-Aram.) regularly use **ה-**, Nabataean (with the exception of **הַקִּים**, No. 97 col. 1) and Palmyrene equally regularly **-א-**; in Biblical Aramaic **-ה-** preponderates. For the reflexive forms, No. 63 14 presents **-ה-**, No. 65 4 (probably) **-א-**, and the latter is usual in Egyptian-Aramaic, Palmyrene and apparently Nabataean; in Biblical Aramaic, the forms with **א** occur only in Daniel. Older forms are preserved in **אִתֵּה** (Nab.), **אַנְפָהִי** Dan. ii. 46 (cp. No. 69 14), **אַנְחָנָה** Ezr. iv. 16, **פְּתָמָה** (? No. 75 2); suspected Hebraisms prove to belong to the genuine Aramaic stock¹, and in two cases an incorrect division of words can be remedied². The difficult use of **יְהָב** in Ezr. v. 16 finds support in No. 102 6, and the papyrus of Darius II (p. 269 above) not only mentions among officials the **דִּינִיא** (Ezr. iv. 9) and **תִּפְתְּחִיא** (Dan. iii. 2), but contains the interesting phrase **אָוֶר יְהָבָר** (cp. Dan. ii. 5, 8).

To supplement the remarks upon the Palmyrene inscriptions (p. 264 sq.), it may be observed that the dialect in several respects is younger than Nabataean (not to mention Egyptian-Aramaic, &c.). In one or two instances it agrees with the Aramaic of Daniel whilst the Nabataean finds analogies in Ezra. The best example is the suffix of the 3rd plur. masc. which in Ezra, Nabataean and older Aramaic is **הַם-** (defective), but in Daniel, Palmyrene,

¹ e. g. **אַנְפָהִי** (in Nab.) **אָה** (but only in 61; it occurs, however, in Pahlavi, Nöldeke, *GGÄ*, 1884, No. 26, pp. 1014 sqq.). **אַנְחָנָה** is cited from the Eg.-Aram. papyrus of Darius II.

² **הָאָכְלָה** (87, &c.) shows, must be read as one word, and for **הַנְּאָקָר** Dan. ii. 43, we should read **הַנְּאָקָר**, cp. Palm. **דִּין** (Schulthess, *ZATW*, 1902, p. 164 sq.).

Jewish-Aramaic, &c. יְהָוָה¹; the inscriptions regularly keep the forms distinct and on this account the occurrence of יְהָוָה in Ezra can scarcely be original². Further, הַלְאָ, Ezr. v. 15 (keth.), agrees with Nabataean, whereas הַלְאָ, the regular Palmyrene form, corresponds with the הַלְאָ³ of Daniel. Occasionally, also, the k̄erî marks a later stage in the language which we are able to check by means of the inscriptions. Thus in Dan. iv. 16 “my lord,” with נ agrees with the older inscriptions (including Nab.), whilst קִרְיִ (k̄erî) is in conformity with Palmyrene and the later forms (e. g. Syriac)⁴. In Dan. iv. 13, the k̄erî נְשָׁנָה is in agreement with Palmyrene and later Aramaic, the Nabataean alone has נְשָׁנָה. The lack of a special feminine form for the 3rd plur. perfect and nominal suffix (which is supplied by the k̄erî, e. g. Dan. v. 5 נְפָקָה, k. נְפָקָה; ii. 33 מְנָהָן, k. מְנָהָן) finds its parallel in Nabataean as distinguished from later usage⁵.

The following examples of the difference between the Palmyrene and the Nabataean (and older inscriptions) may be noticed: חָוָה, “loculus” for a corpse (Targ. בָּקָר), regularly in Nabataean, Palmyrene מְחָוָה (No. 91 5). אַסְרָחָנָה in No. 96 2, a rare instance of a Greek loan-word in Nabataean, Palmyrene transliterates with more precision אַסְטָרָטָן (στρατηγός)—the latter agrees with later Jewish and Syriac; on the various Nabataean forms, reference may be made to Lidzbarski, *Handbuch*, p. 222, or my *Glossary*, p. 23.

¹ Palm. rarely יְהָוָה, Jerus. Targ. also יְהָוָה (Dalman, *Gramm.*, p. 162).

² Cp. a similar unnatural confusion in Jer. x. 11 (אָקָרָא and אָעָרָא).

³ In this and in similarly cited words (e. g. Pal.-Syr. נְ[ג]ָתָה), the bracketed letter indicates a variant form, thus in Dan. both הַלְאָ and הַלְאָ occur, in Pal.-Syr. both אַלְאָ and אַלְאָ.

⁴ With the k̄ethib אַחֲשָׁנָה, Ezr. iv. 12, cp. retention of נ in Nos. 65 9, 75 2.

⁵ With the Haphel inf. הִתְחַדֵּה, הִתְשַׁנֵּה (Dan. ii. 10, vi. 9, k̄erî הַנְּשָׁנָה, Strack), cp. Eg.-Aram. אַשְׁנָה, הִתְחַדֵּה. In Palm. the only examples of an infin. (outside the Pe'al) are אַחֲרָוָה (cp. Jew.-Aram., Dalman, p. 227) and מְשַׁנְּנָה. With the older נְשָׁנָה (Ezr. vi. 17, k̄erî הַנְּשָׁנָה), the Nab. הַיְמָנָה “penalty” (CIS ii. 224 11) may be compared.

צָרָק "righteous" in old Aramaic, in Nabataean only in a legal sense (No. 82 3); Palm. uses זָקָן as in Syr. (Pal.-Syr., however, צָרָק). The fuller form מְנֻדְעָמָה "some-, anything" (with plur. מְנֻדְעָמִים in Eg.-Aram.) becomes מְדֻעָם, a stage nearer the Syr. צָרָק. The Nab. זָמָן "time" agrees with Bibl.-Aram., the Palm. זָמָן with later Aram. רָאשׁ ("head," "principal," p. 406) drops נ in Palm. אַנְתָּה "woman, wife," frequent in Nab., is shortened in Palm. to אַתָּה (also, but rarely, in Nab.), and even אַתָּא; obviously a popular pronunciation (cp. Pal.-Syr. אַתְּחָ[ת]). The older תָּהָה "here," takes the form תָּהָן in Palm. in agreement with Syr. תָּהָן. Two "two" (fem.) becomes דְּבָרֵן; for מִן בְּרֵן "except," Palm. has בְּרֵן, and for "memorial" (only Nab.), Palm. employs דְּבָרֵן (once in Nab.). As regards the last-mentioned example, we may compare on the one hand, בְּרָזָנָה Ezr. vi. 2 and Pal.-Syr. דְּבָרָן, and on the other, בְּרָנָנָה Ezr. iv. 15 and Syr. בְּרָנָן.¹

נ becomes ה in דְּה "this" (fem.)—note for Nab., Palm. נְפָשָׂא דְּה. Conversely, ה becomes נ in חֲדָא "one," מָא "what," חֲמָתָא "wheat." It is only in Palm. that the plural suffix -וּהִי appears as -וּה (except No. 62 2); יְהֻוּן "they shall be" as יְהֻוּן; יְהֻוּן as יְהֻוּן, and the plural emphatic נָא as נָא. The use of ש to represent שׁ, as in Biblical Aramaic, but כְּסָרִיא (כְּסָרִיא, בְּשָׁזִיא) Ezr. v. 12), is regular in old Aramaic; ס probably occurs once in Eg.-Aram. (חַסְהָרָא), otherwise only in Palmyrene, where, apart from the retention of שׁ in בְּשִׁמָא, עַשְׁרָא, עַשְׁבִיא, סָמֵל "left," סָהָר "witness" and סָנִי "many," by the side of שָׁנִי.

The general relation of the dialects of the inscriptions to Aramaic generally is an interesting inquiry into which space forbids me to enter. That they stand more closely akin to Western Aramaic than to the literary Edessene Syriac is not surprising when we consider their popular character. What can be culled from Jewish-Aramaic may

¹ With the exception of Nab. גְּלָחוֹר CIS ii. 209 7 for גְּלָחוֹר (twice), examples of variation in the use of ו and נ, are found only in Palm. (חַרְיָא, בְּגַנְיָא, אַגְּנָיָא, דְּגַנְיָא, גְּנָיָא, נְגַנְיָא).

be seen in Dalman's *Grammatik des jüdisch-palästinischen Aramäisch*, here I propose to notice a few examples of Palestinian-Syriac analogies. The examples from the inscriptions, unless otherwise indicated, are Palmyrene, and for the sake of clearness Palestinian-Syriac forms are transliterated in Hebrew.

As regards consonantal interchanges, the old Aram. צְדָק (above) is found also in Pal.-Syr., (Edessene) Syr. צְדָק; with קְשָׁת (verb, p. 311), compare P.-S. קוּשְׁתָא, but contrast Syr. קְשָׁתָא. As regards nominal forms:—Old Aramaic מִתְחַבָּא (No. 70 1) = P.-S. מִתְחַבָּא, Syr. מִתְחַבָּא (? cp. Nab. No. 80 4); Nab. and Palm. מִקְבְּרַתָּא (p. 242), so P.-S., but Syr. מִקְבְּרַתָּא; מִתְחַמָּא (No. 121 2), so P.-S., but Syr. מִתְחַמָּא¹; תְּשִׁמְישָׁא (p. 337), so P.-S.; but Syr. תְּשִׁמְישָׁא. The Nab. שָׁרִירָה (No. 94 3) and נְפָלָה “double” are used in P.-S. (note Schwally, *Idioticon*, p. 95), but not in Syr. שָׁרִירָה, שְׁרִירָה (No. 117 4) “beam,” so in P.-S., in Syr. with a different nuance. The Nab. and Palm. agrees with P.-S., but Syr. בְּנָה, בְּנָה; and for the Palm. כְּנָה נְכָנָה cp. the passages cited by Schwally, p. 44. With בְּדִיל דִּי (p. 266), cp. P.-S. בְּדִיל דִּי, בְּדִיל דִּי, for which Syr. uses בְּדִיל דִּי (also in Palm., but not in P.-S.). In No. 121 4, אֲחֵי finds analogies in P.-S., but לְכָא agrees with Syr. לְכָא against P.-S. (= הַכָּא²). The accus. particle תְּ, in Zenjirli, Nab., and Palm. is rare in Syr., but particularly common in P.-S. Finally, we may add the plur. constr. in נְ— (No. 126 4), not to be confused with the plur. emph. as in חֲנָרָא (No. 113 3), and the defective spellings מְוִיזָן, מְוִיזָן (Nos. 139, 147 i. 10).

The inscriptions have been carefully selected by Mr. Cooke, and he has succeeded in illustrating all the more distinctive classes. Nos. 8, 10, 29, 50–60, and

¹ In the note on 121 2 read לְכָא נְכָנָה Mt. xxiv. 3; [אֲחֵי] נְכָנָה, Vogüé No. 16 3, would closely resemble the Syr. form, but the restoration is doubtful.

² Hence on p. 279, second line from foot, read “Syr.” for “Pal. Syr.”

perhaps the two Zenjirli inscriptions, Nos. 61 and 62, are scarcely suitable for beginners, but naturally their omission would have detracted from the value of the book. Between Nos. 66 and 67 a specimen of an Aramaic docket might very well have been inserted¹, and particularly in the Nabataean and Palmyrene divisions other inscriptions equally suitable for beginners might easily be suggested. In view of the necessity of keeping the book within limits this criticism would be unreasonable, and the only remark that may be made is that it would have been advantageous to record more thoroughly in the notes parallels or analogies from those inscriptions which are not cited in full². On the other hand, the excellent manner in which Mr. Cooke has condensed the most important details of the Punic inscriptions (see p. 137 sq.) deserves the highest praise.

Mr. Cooke has aimed not at originality by proposing new interpretations or reconstructions, but at as much finality as can be reached in the present state of knowledge. His object has been "to give, after careful study of the various authorities on the subject, what seemed to be the most probable verdict on the issues raised, and also to bring together the chief matters of importance bearing on the text." He refers to the frequent use of "probably" and "possibly" in the commentary, and he reminds us "how seldom we can speak with positiveness on questions of grammar and interpretation where the material is so limited and where there is no contemporary literature to shed light upon the monuments." True though these words are, it is well to remind ourselves also of the great progress of epigraphical research during the last decade. The accumulation of material, the greater interest taken in a critical study of the subject, and the tardy recognition of the fact

¹ e.g. CIS ii. 38, 39. Those preserved in the British Museum have recently been re-edited by J. H. Stevenson (*Vanderbilt Oriental Series*, 1902).

² In No. 116 3 חכנן can be illustrated by the Palm. שׁוֹרֵן, &c. &c.

that the inscriptions are real contributions to Semitic philology and archaeology, have raised Semitic epigraphy to the rank of a separate branch of learning¹. Further, although the decipherment of the inscriptions is not rarely attended with great obscurity, it is well to recollect that even in the Hebrew of the Old Testament, despite the assistance of tradition, of ancient versions, of vowels and accents, it is not seldom that one is unable to speak with confidence respecting points of philology or interpretation. Indeed, the words "probably" and "possibly" enter more frequently into the vocabulary of the Hebraist than is realized by some.

It is by reducing the limits of the possible and by ascertaining the extent of the probable—to follow Mr. Cooke—that we may hope to advance the study of North-Semitic epigraphy, and although in a great number of cases there is little disagreement of opinion, it is lamentable how frequently the true meaning of a line or group of words entirely escapes us, and how widely the views of editors will differ in the most striking manner one from the other.

The admirable manner in which Mr. Cooke has collected his material scarcely leaves anything to be desired. The thoroughness with which he has gone to work is made manifest in numberless instances², and if a note is missed here and there, we must remember that in a manual for students, completeness was neither possible nor perhaps even desirable—if the work was to be kept within limits. In a few cases, too, we may question whether Mr. Cooke has really adopted the best interpretation, and occasionally,

¹ As Mr. Cooke observes (p. viii) it is to Paris that the distinction belongs of having recognized the study of Oriental epigraphy and archaeology, by the foundation of a chair in the Collège de France. It is now held by M. Clermont-Ganneau, to whose brilliant studies every worker in this field is indebted.

² Slight though it is, in No. 12 (CIS i. 10), ll. 3 and 4 are rightly divided (ט | טט) in agreement with the facsimile in the *Corpus*, but by a mere slip the editors and Lidzbarski wrongly divide טט | ט.

also, the steady advance of epigraphic research places his observations in need of some qualification.

In ll. 11-12 of the Moabite stone, if the reading כָּל הָעֵדָה is adopted, a note on the construction should be appended, cp. Ges.-Kau. § 127. The pregnant construction לְאַחֲרֵי l. 14 deserves remark, cp. Deut. xx. 10. In l. 25 אֲפִיר, point אֲפִיר or אֲפִיר, in Biblical Hebrew is used only in the singular. In ll. 8, 10 אֲרָם is used precisely as in 1 Sam. ix. 4, 8, &c., of a small district.

The Siloam inscription is confidently ascribed to about 700 B.C., but see below, p. 287.

To the note on 3 10 it is to be observed that the sing. אל “god” is now known not to be confined to proper names; in Costa, Nos. 16, 31, we meet with לְאַדְנָן לְאַלְעָן לְבָעֵל חַמְן and לְאַדְנָן לְאַלְעָן אֲקָרִישׁ בָּעֵל חַמְן.¹

In the note on 5 4 it is not quite clear how Mr. Cooke actually interprets קָנָמִי. The translation (p. 31) “I adjure,” is based upon the Mishnic קָנִים, which is perhaps rather a minced oath, for קָנְבָנִי,² whereas, as a reflexive pronoun of the first person singular (Syr. مَنْهُ), such a rendering is too elliptical (see p. 34). It will be observed that the translation “which *I myself* built” would excellently suit l. 4 (בָנָת קָנָמִי), but is placed out of the question by the construction in l. 20, where we can scarcely suppose that it has been inserted by a careless copyist who, with l. 4 in his mind, took the word to belong to the sentence following. Still, this inscription is not free from errors, however slight (ll. 6, 9, 11).

In No. 9 4, an inscription of the second century from Umm el-‘Awāmid, there is a famous puzzle. In it ‘Abdelim vows “this gate and the doors: אֲשֶׁל פָּעַל תְּבִלְתִּיבְנָנִי in the year 180,” &c. Mr. Cooke cites three interpretations: (a) and the doors “thereof (אֲשֶׁר ל) I made (פָּעַלְתִּי) in fulfilment of it (? ?); I built this (כָּנָחִי) in the year,” &c. (b) “which (שֶׁ) are for the making (לפָעַלְתִּי) of the temple

¹ Lidz., *Ephemeris*, I, p. 39.

² See G. F. Moore, *Ency. Bib.*, “Vows,” col. 5254.

(בָּתְחַ) I have finished (כָּלַת); I built it," &c. (c) "which I have indeed made (לְפָעַלָּת) in the completion of my building." Against these may be urged חַבְלָת "fulfilment" in *a*; the bare בָּתְחַ and the verbal forms in *b*, and the affirmative לְ in *c* (see also the note p. 47). Another rendering is possible, (d) "which (לְשָׁלָא) I have made in its entirety (בְּכָלַת); I built it in the year," &c. The unique לְשָׁא which is thus postulated is not outrageous¹; the suffix in חַבְלָת will of course refer to the erection of the gate and doors as a whole.

It is not easy to rest content with the usual interpretation of No. 16 (CIS i. 46): "I 'Abd-osir, . . . set up this pillar in my life-time over my resting-place for ever; also to my wife, . . ."

² אָנָּךְ . . . מִצְבָּת . לְמִבְחֵי . יִתְנַאֲת . עַל . מִשְׁכֵב נָחָתִי . לְעַלְמָם . וּלְאַשְׁתִּי . לְיַמָּה .

Parallel to this, is No. 21: "This pillar which Arish . . . erected to his father . . . and to his mother . . . over their resting-place, for ever."

מִצְבָּת אָוֹ אֲשֵׁר יִתְנַאֲת אָוֹ לְאָבִי אָוֹ וּלְאַמִּי אָוֹ עַל מִשְׁכֵב נָחָתִם לְעַלְמָם.

Not only have we in No. 16 "an exceptional instance of the מִצְבָּת being set up by the person commemorated during his life-time," but the combination of the prepositions בְּ + מִתְבָּבָב is most difficult. It is certainly true that in No. 45 5 the *terminus a quo* may be understood, but this does not suit No. 42 5. One might conjecture a particle לְמִתְבָּבָב (cp. Syr. مَعَ, late Heb. נִמְתַּבֵּב), "even," but this is too desperate a course. A proper name seems impossible.

In No. 27 (CIS i. 93) it is not improbable that בְּנֵי עַל is really "for the sons of his (Mar-Yehai's) son." The genealogy is thus simplified. In No. 28, לְעִנְתָּה עַזְּ חַיָּם (Αθηναὶ Σωτείραὶ Νίκη) is usually rendered "To 'Anath the strength of life," עַזְּ is thus derived from עַזְּ (עַזְּ) be strong; it is perhaps better to connect with עַזְּ עַזְּ (עַזְּ) take refuge.

¹ See Wright, *Comp. Gram.*, p. 118.

² The dots indicate the omission of unnecessary words (chiefly proper-names).

This inscription is of some interest on account of the name of the votary, Baal-shillem, son of Sesmai ($\Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\sigma\mu\alpha\sigma$), which reminds us of Shallum b. Sismai ($\mathfrak{שְׁלָמִי}$) in the Jerahmeelite genealogy, 1 Chr. ii. 40. Curiously enough the name of $\Sigma\acute{\epsilon}\sigma\mu\alpha\sigma$, a Sidonian, has recently been found upon graffiti in a tomb near Beit Jibrin, at the site of the ancient Marêshah. The name Baal-shillem in No. 28 is replaced by $\Pi\rho\alpha\xi\delta\eta\mu\sigma$, the reason for which is not obvious. Whilst on the subject of names it may be pointed out that the Greek $\mathrm{Ν}\mathrm{ο}\mathrm{υ}\mathrm{μ}\mathrm{ή}\mathrm{ν}\mathrm{ι}\mathrm{ο}\mathrm{s}$ not only represents בְּנַחֲרֵשׁ ("born on the new moon") No. 17 3, but, as a recently-discovered inscription proves, even מְחַרֵשׁ ¹. That the familiar Punic מְרַבָּל (Mēr̠bālōs) is to be interpreted "gift of Ba'al" is certainly not convincing (p. 109); may one venture "Baal hastens"?² In No. 35, where אַשְׁמַנְשָׁלָם is represented by אֶסְמַסְעֶלְמָוֹן , the view that "the reduplication of the intensive stem (לִלְלִ) is not marked," does not seem to be very probable. Pi'el forms are easily recognizable in *Balsillec* and *Balṣīllāh* (כְּבָלְשָׁלָל)³; the name under consideration was probably pronounced Eshmun-shalem. Mr. Cooke compares $\Delta\mathrm{o}\mathrm{μ}\mathrm{σ}\mathrm{ά}\mathrm{l}\mathrm{ω}\mathrm{s}$ = דִּמְצָלָח (No. 32), but here we doubtless have the same form as in מְלִכִּתְנָ (Cypriote *mi-li-ki-ya-tho-no-se*, CIS i. 89), cp. Hebrew forms like קָדוֹשׁ ⁴. That בְּנַשְׁלָם (p. 57) means "peace be (to him)" cannot be regarded as certain in view of the Aramaic יְבָנָנָתָה and the name of the Tyrian king Ἐκνίβαλος (? יְכָנָבָל , Jos. c. *Ap.* i. 21).

אַשְׁמָן (מְאַרְחָ) (No. 40) is another familiar difficulty. Eshumun-Aesculapius *Iatros* is perhaps meant, and the epithet מְאַרְחָ seems to be a denominative of אָרְכָה , "healing, restora-

¹ *Répertoire d'Épigr. Sém.*, No. 388.

² One naturally recalls Maher-shalal-hash-baz (Isa. viii. 1, 3), which like Shear-Jashub is intended as an omen. These may be plays upon familiar personal names, cp. with Shear-Jashub such names as Shubael and Eliashib.

³ Worn down to *Báslēchōs* in Jos. c. *Apion.* i. 21.

⁴ May we compare the Sam. participial form יְצָקָ ? (Also Pal.-Syr. يَقْسَنْ , Am. ix. 6 [ed. Margoliouth], if it is not rather a perf. in \bar{o} .)

tion”¹. In a Sardinian inscription of the second century this interchange of **נ** and **כ** is not too serious a difficulty. In view of the late date, it does not seem plausible, moreover, to explain the verbal form **רפיא** (“he healed him”) as a verb treated after the manner of **לְה**, with the retention of the radical **ר**; **יִ-** is preferably the later form of the suffix (*with 'plene*) as in the Neo-Punic **אָבִיא** “his father.”

The meaning and origin of **דָל** in Phoenician is still exceedingly obscure. (a) In the Marseilles sacrificial tablet (No. 42 15) allowance is made for the man **דָל צָפָר**. (b) In No. 46 1 (CIS i. 175) the Decemviri renovate and repair “this slaughter-house (**מִתְבָח**) which is **דָל** **פָעָם**.” (c) In No. 45 reference is made to the sanctuaries and their contents:—

דָל מִלְכַת הַחֲרֵץ וְדָל כָל מִנְמָה וְדָל הַעַלְמָה.

With the last citation we should possibly associate (d) the Tabnith inscription (No. 4 4-5):—

כָאִי אָדָלְןָ כָסְפָאִי אָדָלְןָ חֲרֵץ וְכָל מִנְמָה.

From *a* and *b* the meaning “devoid of,” “without,” has been extracted. Obviously this suits neither *c* or *d*, nor is it at all natural to render *b* “this slaughter-house without steps,” in spite of Exod. xx. 25, to which the Editors of the *Corpus* refer. That **דָל** in *a* is the Hebrew **לְלָם** “poor” seems extremely probable (see Cooke’s note), and it is very probable, also, that it is not connected with *b* and *c*. As regards these, Lidzbarski has suggested “that which is damaged,” on the assumption that repairs are commemorated (p. 128). Winckler’s conjecture² that **דָל** is to be connected with the Assyrian *dullu* “work, workmanship” is plausible enough to be added to the note on p. 128. On the whole, however, since **אָדָלְןָ** in *d* seems to contain some such meaning as “with me” (see note on p. 29), I am tempted to conjecture that in *b* and *c* **דָל** is to be interpreted “together with,” “including,” or the like³.

¹ Cp. Jer. xxxiii. 6 where it occurs together with **נְאָרָא** as above.

² See Lidzbarski, *Ephem.*, I, 301.

³ Halévy (*Journ. Asiat.*, 1902, t. 20, p. 349 sq.), also, has identified **אָדָלְןָ**

In the note on No. 61 4 (ימנו) Mr. Cooke observes that in the Zenjirli inscriptions and in those of Nêrab and Têma the impf. pl. ends in *u*, not, as is usual in Aram., in *un*. It should be observed, however, that the form, strictly speaking, is peculiar to No. 61 (the Hadad inscr.), elsewhere it is always a jussive, and the apocope of the *u* is in accordance with Biblical-Aramaic usage. In l. 34 of the Hadad inscription תְּאַלְבָּן (=תְּאַלְפָּן) in parallelism with בְּתַחַת is probably "put in writing," cp. Nab. יְתַאֲלָפָּן (No. 79 7), but it is to be feared that in the present state of our knowledge only a small amount of probability can be attached to the interpretation of Nos. 61 and 62.

In the note on 62 1 (fourth line) read שְׁאַלְמָן? In No. 63, l. 17, now appears to mean "house of Kalammu" (above, p. 268, n. 2). That in l. 16 [ה] לִישָׁה is the older form of לִית seems very doubtful. In Bibl. Aram., even, the uncontracted form לֹא אִיתִי is usual, and the equation שְׁאַלְמָן [ה] = later Aram. شَائِلَة [ه] would require an Arabic لِيَث. That the Aramaic שְׁאַלְמָן = Heb. שְׁאַלְמָן is not absolutely certain.

The difficult inscription from Petra (No. 94, CIS ii. 350) must probably be recognized as dialectical. In l. 3 שְׁאַרְיָה בְּלָא אַצְלָא, summing up as it does everything relating to the sepulchre, is most naturally rendered "the rest of all that is near (it)." It is naturally connected with the Hebrew אַצְלָא "near, beside," and it is worth noticing that both שְׁאַרְיָה and the form בָּאַרְיוֹת (l. 2) are distinctly reminiscent of Hebrew. Other peculiarities are the use of אָנוֹ "these," and כתַּב תְּקַפָּה, כתַּב לְמַקְבֵּר, כתַּב תְּקַפָּה, כתַּב לְמַקְבֵּר, &c. To render פְּפָקְדָּן (l. 4) "and it is the order," seems difficult since פְּאַיִתִי פְּ would have been expected; it is quite in keeping with the rest of the inscription to find פְּקָדָן¹, but

and דְּ in *d*, *b* and *c*, and treats it as the Phoen. equivalent of the Heb. סְמָךְ. As regards the derivation, the Ass. *edilu* "to bolt" might suggest that לְאַלְמָן originally had the meaning "conjunction," "joining."

¹ In the note on p. 243 (CIS ii. 168, &c.) should have been cited, not רְכָנָן (only in 236); see above, p. 276.

a better rendering would be “and they (Dûshara, &c.) ordered”; cp. for the ending **נ-**, Dalman, *Gram.*, p. 203, and **עֲבָרִין** on the Jewish-Aramaic mosaic of Kefr Kenna (*Pal. Explor. Fund, Quarterly Statement*, 1901, p. 376)¹.

In the Palm. inscr., No. 144, we read: “in . . . the year 500; Lishamsh . . . has-given-a-share (אָחָבָר) of this vault to Bôonne . . . I have-given-him-a-share (אָחָבָרְתָּה),” &c. The change of person if not unique is extremely awkward here, and perhaps the simplest plan is to assume a mistake for the third person and read **אָחָבָר** **לְהָ**².

The valuable Tariff of Palmyra (No. 147), among other noteworthy features, contains several examples of passives formed by internal vowel-change. These are recognized by Wright, Duval, Sachau, Bevan, Marti, and others, but Mr. Cooke denies their existence upon grounds which are open to criticism. In the first place, let it be admitted that the Nab. **אֲבָנִים** (102 5) and Palm. **אֲשָׁלָמָת** (Vogüé, 95 4) are too obscure to enter into the question; there remain then the examples in No. 147 and the Nab. inscr. from Medeba (No. 96, l. 8). In the latter **וְעֲבִידָתָא דֵי עַלְאָ עֲבִידָת** is correctly translated “and the above work *was executed in the year*,” &c., but there is no note upon the form. As regards Mr. Cooke’s objections (p. 334), it may be pointed out that it is extremely unlikely that the Biblical Aramaic **חַתְקָנָה**, **חוֹסֶפֶת**, &c., are modelled upon the Hebrew, and the statement that the forms are only used (in Bibl. Aram.) in the perf. 3rd pers. ignores **קָרְבָּא** in Dan. v. 27³. Finally, the difficulty of construing the

¹ To explain (ס) **צָהָרָה**, 94 2, 95 2, from the Arab. **صَهْرَ** is contrary to the usual equation, we should expect the initial letter to be **ي**; a similar objection has been raised by Nöldeke against the identification of **רְצִיאָה** and **رَصْوَى** (88 1). In the case of **מְדִצָּה** a connexion with **מְזִקְבָּחָה**, to raise a monument, may be conjectured.

² Cp. *Proceedings of Society of Bibl. Archaeology*, 1899, p. 74.

³ The note i. l. 13 (p. 335) assumes that **בָּנָה** is a passive participle. This is incorrect. Nowhere is the internal passive more clearly marked than in the forms **בָּנִי**, **בָּנִי**, **בָּנִי** as distinct from the Pe’al partcp. pass. **בָּנָה**, **בָּנָה**, **בָּנָה** (Wright, *Comp. Gram.*, p. 224 sq.). On p. 333, first line (the note on **אָסְפָה**), “Pual” is a slip for “Hophal.”

Palmyrene forms as actives remains insuperable. Objection must be taken to the vocalization of certain forms in this inscription. The careful distinction between מְכַטֵּחַ "tax-gatherer," and מְכַטֵּחַ "tax" (p. 332), or between יְמִינָה and יְמִינָה (p. 333), is extremely useful; but such attempts as לְחַנְתֵּלְיָהּ (p. 338, on l. 11), פְּלִתְחָרָתָה (p. 332, on l. 1) are of no service to the student, who might infer that they actually existed.

The sections on the North-Semitic coins, seals, and gems (Nos. 149, 150) are a welcome addition to the book, and may, we trust, lead to renewed research in this particular department. As regards the Jewish coins, Mr. Cooke accepts the view, now generally held, that those formerly attributed by Madden and others to Simon Maccabaeus belong to the period immediately preceding the fall of Jerusalem. They thus take their place midway between the Hasmonaean coins and those of the Second Revolt of 132-135 A.D.¹ These coins, extending as they do over a period of about 270 years², are of considerable palaeographic interest. Although marked as a whole by certain characteristic forms, it is worth noticing that of the specimens on p. 353, the third form of נ is peculiar to the copper coins of the fourth year (p. 358 h 4) and the Second Revolt (132-135 A.D.), and the second form of נ is characteristic of the Hasmonaean period. The general appearance of the legends upon the coins of the First and Second Revolt differs to a marked degree from the Hasmonaean, whilst the carelessness which distinguishes those of Eleazar the priest is most remarkable.

The Jewish coins, as is well known, are stamped in the old Hebrew character, not in the Aramaic square forms which are to be found upon contemporary ossuaries, and ultimately came into general use. The script has several features in common with the Siloam inscription and

¹ Th. Reinach has quite recently returned to the older view, and a reconsideration of the question seems desirable (*Jewish Coins*, pp. 10-14).

² "170," p. 353, l. 3, is a misprint.

Mr. Pilcher has, on these grounds, proposed to place the latter at the close of the reign of Herod the Great¹. The constructions מאת אמה ואלף (2 5-6) certainly suggest a date subsequent to the seventh century, and the evidence which assumes that the conduit, in which the inscription was discovered, was constructed by Hezekiah is far from being unimpeachable. Unfortunately, the history of Hebrew palaeography is very obscure, and in the present state of our knowledge it is impossible to fix the date with certainty. From the various seals and pottery stamps that have been found it would appear that in addition to a script closely resembling the Siloam, another was in use which approximated more closely to the Moabite and old Phoenician forms. No one can fail to observe that in the name צדקה (No. 150 6, Plate XI) both נ and ש have Archaic shapes, differing from, and older than, those upon the Siloam inscriptions, and yet the seal, in conformity with the usual view, is dated in the seventh or sixth century. The subject is one upon which it is unnecessary to enter just now, and it will be enough if it is made evident how urgent is the need for inquiry². The palaeography of the inscriptions, it may be mentioned, is treated only incidentally by Mr. Cooke, as is only fitting in a manual of this character, but some characteristic specimens are reproduced in the plates at the end, and these and the three tables of Alphabets will amply suffice to introduce the student to one of the most fascinating departments of Semitic study.

¹ *Proc. of Soc. of Bibl. Arch.*, 1897, p. 182.

² For the history of the Hebrew alphabet, the first requirement is accurate copies of the seals, &c. The following points then require to be considered: (a) the character of the proper names upon the seals, a careful distinction being drawn between Hebrew, Phoenician, and Aramaic names; (b) the modification of the forms, viewed in connexion with the development of similar modifications in the Phoenician and Aramaic alphabets, for which dated evidence is more at hand; (c) the archaeological evidence, where it can be obtained; e. g. the strata at which the pottery stamps, &c. were found during the excavations of Bliss and Macalister in the Shéphélah district.

The foregoing remarks and criticisms only affect points of detail, and in many cases merely reflect the writer's personal opinion. They in no wise detract from the excellence of Mr. Cooke's careful work. No one save those who have delved among the inscriptions and have striven to keep pace with the rapidly growing literature of the subject can fully appreciate the labour entailed in the collection of the material which is here placed at the disposal of Semitic students. Elaborate indexes render reference easy; one misses, however, an index of the inscriptions which are to be found in the *Corpus* and in such notable works as Euting's *Nabatäische Inschriften* or de Vogüé's *La Syrie Centrale*. If Lidzbarski performed a lasting service to scholars by rendering the inscriptions and their contents more readily accessible, the Rev. G. A. Cooke may be congratulated for his services in facilitating the study by removing most of the difficulties which had hitherto beset the path of the beginner.

How extensive the field of research, how urgent the need for workers and collaborators must be admitted by all. Whether it is the study of the philological peculiarities, or the palaeography, or the evidence of the proper names, or the Punic passages in the *Poenulus* of Plautus, or the religious ideas and beliefs—there is much that requires to be done. To Jews in particular the subject should be one of especial interest. It is surely important to familiarize oneself with dialects so closely related to Hebrew as Phoenician and Moabite. Surely it is useful to gain some acquaintance with ancient orthography and palaeography. Whatever may be our views of textual criticism, it is interesting to realize that some of the inscriptions themselves have come down to us with errors and mistakes, and if a stone, why not a MS. which has been copied and recopied?

The Egyptian-Aramaic documents in one case, at least, are Jewish, and the Oxford papyrus (pp. 404-6) contains the names of Jewish merchants and is evidence for the early settlement of Jews in Upper Egypt—possibly the

oldest allusion subsequent to Jer. xliv. 1, 15. The presence of Jews elsewhere may be suspected from the character of the proper names. In the Aramaic dockets we meet with such familiar forms as אלמליך, הוועש, מנהם, בערלאל, בעלעוזר ; among the graffiti in the Sinaitic peninsula there appear חיאל, שבותי, רמאל and Palmyra numbered among her inhabitants ברק, שמעון, מרתיה (Martha).

For the religion of the Semites the inscriptions are a storehouse of material. The Phoenician sacrificial tablets (Nos. 42-44) are of interest as much for their divergence from, as their agreement with, Hebrew ritual. The importance of the Moabite stone, with its mention of the divine name יהוה, has already been mentioned. In Palmyrene, the god 'Azizu is called רחמנא "the compassionate one," an epithet which is found upon votive inscriptions dedicated "to Him whose Name is Blessed" ; the phrases—like the Palmyrene מלטא "Lord of the World" (or "of eternity")—sound peculiarly Jewish (pp. 296 sqq.). Even בעלשמם "Lord of the Heavens"—I need not stop to refer to Jewish analogies—is rendered in bilingual inscriptions by Ζεὺς ὑψιστος, a suggestive indication of the growth of monotheistic ideas, and of a reaction against polytheism.

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